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## EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.

### I. BEFORE THE WAR.

IN dealing with southern education, an adequate conception can be gained only after first making an examination of the industrial organization of the South. This is owing to the now generally recognized fact that systems of education are outgrowths of and dependent upon the economic environment in which they originate and develop. The educational, like the political, institution may be designated a "superstructure" in that it has at all times reflected and been a product of the particular economic conditions existing in a given social stage, being shaped to meet the demands of the industrial and commercial organization of that period. This interpretation of the place in society occupied by the educational institution puts the source of all improvement and development of education in the industrial life. While the economic organization is thus the basic factor in determining the curriculum of the school, it exerts an influence in yet another direction. Through the financial support which it affords or withholds it is the source of existence of the educational system. Upon the sum appropriated from the social income for educational purposes depend the number and equipment of the school buildings, the efficiency of the teaching force, and the length of the school year. In other words, it determines both the quality and the quantity of education.

In considering education in the South, the period taken for review necessarily cannot be brief, if we are to trace the surviving influences of earlier industrial forms and their resulting institutions. Without this attention to the developmental side, the method of action and body of thought that characterize the South will not be seen in their true perspective, and the educational situation becomes an unsolvable problem. The object of this paper, therefore, will be, while tracing briefly the economic evolution of the South, to point out the accompanying growth and modifications of education.

The industrial organization of southern society before the Civil War presents certain distinctive features. The early settlement of the southern colonies was almost entirely rural. The land was held in large tracts of several hundred acres and cultivated by slave labor. The economic effects of slave labor are apparent. It compelled the South to remain an agricultural section, and at the same time carry on its agriculture at the expense of a great waste of resources.

The plantation was the industrial unit. Ordinarily all of the various things necessary for the family and slaves of the planter, aside from a few imported luxuries, were produced on the plantation. Not only were the raw materials for clothing—wool, leather, and cotton—produced, but these raw products were worked up into the completed form for consumption on the same plantation. The food products—grain, corn, meat, and vegetables—were also supplied by home labor. Thus to a large extent the plantation was a small community, in some ways comparable to the English feudal estate—a community in which the labor of the members of the group supplied the wants of the group. As a result of this “domestic system of production,” the circle of the market for southern products before 1860—barring rice, sugar, tobacco, and cotton—was limited.

Outside the slave-owning class was a large population known as the “poor whites.” Unwilling to work beside colored slave labor, they lived by cultivating waste land or by charity. “They belonged neither to the ruling class nor to the slave class.”<sup>1</sup>

The towns and cities assumed comparatively slight importance. The South had little export trade of manufactured articles. Its cotton went to England and New England cotton-mills. It had not reached the point of working up its raw products for commercial purposes. Hence as a distinctively manufacturing center the city was quite unknown, and with the majority of the population engaged in agriculture the town exerted no dominant influence. The sentiments that characterized the rural population permeated the towns and formed public opinion in the South.

It is due to this original structure of southern society that

<sup>1</sup> WOODROW WILSON, *Division and Union*, p. 128.

education developed along a line entirely different from that in the northern states. The planter, highly individualistic, with his other wants largely or wholly supplied within the circle of the plantation, employed a private tutor or governess for the early education of his children. For their further training the same class frequently sent its sons, and sometimes its daughters, to Europe or the higher institutions of the South or North.

The less wealthy families were forced to adopt a method less expensive. They originated a private neighborhood arrangement. As many pupils as could be conveniently brought within reach of a central point were provided with a school building, and a teacher—frequently some wandering pedagogue, often of little power, but again sometimes a scholar—was put in charge. These “old field schools” were wholly neighborhood affairs. They were also the only place, aside from the state universities, where the people came in direct contact with the educational problem and “had their hands on education,” since the academies and colleges were almost wholly of a denominational character.

Outside the “field school” was still a comparatively large school population unprovided for—“the children of the poor.” These were to be cared for by the state. It is evident that the theory upon which the South at this period worked was that all people above the “indigent class” would school their own children. This left to the state the schooling of the “poor” and a part of the support of the university. The idea of a “poor school” for poor children prevailed in all the states of the South except North Carolina. North Carolina had a development wholly peculiar to herself and possessed something approaching a common-school system at the opening of the Civil War.<sup>2</sup>

The “poor schools” were, as a whole, most inefficient agents. Dr. Orr says that this “so-called system had no system in it,” that it was “full of defects,” and that it was “lacking in a hundred of the elements that make up an efficient public-school system.”<sup>3</sup>

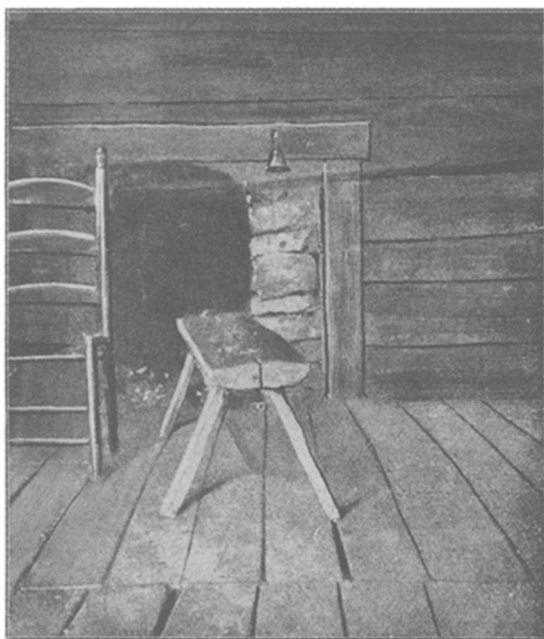
Owing to the organization of southern society, the origin-

<sup>2</sup> A. D. MAYO, *Report of Commissioner of Education*, 1900, Vol. I, p. 448.

<sup>3</sup> *Educational Needs of the South*, p. 7.



**SCHOOI HOUSE, CLAY COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA.**



**INSIDE SCHOOLHOUSE, CLAY COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA.**

ating and developing of a common-school system, outside some of the larger cities, was impossible at that time. The sharp division of society into separate economic classes worked against the educating of the children of all people together and produced a distinct form of class education. This system of education, it is evident, gave to the young of the wealthy the best schooling the times afforded, while it condemned the larger part of the population to a condition of practical illiteracy.

It has frequently been stated that the system of schooling in the South was due to the fact that the English ideas of education—that is to say, the aversion to public schools—had been transplanted to the South, and that it was these ideas that worked against the early establishment of the American common school in which the central point is “that the whole people educate all children.” It must be borne in mind, however, that something more fundamental than ideas was transplanted. The primary fact is that there was the possibility for the growth in the South of an organization of industrial society in many respects closely resembling that of England a century and a half ago; hence the similarity in the educational institution. Those of the same blood and descent settled likewise in New England, but the great landed estate was there an impossibility; the town became the unit in society, and the common school took form sooner. Efforts to further the growth of education were not turned mainly in the direction of elementary schools. In fact, almost all of the southern states began by first founding a university. This was a logical outcome of the existing social organization. They started at the top and worked down in education, so that Dr. Charles Dabney’s characterization of the school system of the South today is true of its early years:

Our present educational system, as far as we have any at all, is a column with a beautifully carved capitol upon its top which is altogether too large for the base and shaft.<sup>4</sup>

Numerous colleges, academies, and seminaries were established; but necessarily the mass of the population was excluded from both these secondary and higher institutions, owing to lack of funds.

<sup>4</sup> CHARLES W. DABNEY, *Report of Department of Interior*, p. 513.

As an inevitable consequence of the absence of a broad general school system, it followed that many of the so-called colleges and universities received students that were fitted only for grade or secondary work.

In only a few of the southern states could a common-school system be considered as existing in 1860. Kentucky and North Carolina had something of a public-school system in operation, but in the other states, aside from the universities, the attempts to build up such a system had failed.

The Civil War destroyed the old institutions of the South and prepared the way for a new industrial and educational period.

## II. WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION.

The majority of the lower schools of the South closed at or near the beginning of the war. In a few cases—as, for instance, in Mobile—they were kept open, but in the territory in, or in close proximity to, the actual path of the war there was little strength left to maintain the educational institution. Teaching at home no doubt prevailed to a considerable extent during these years.

The war produced a revolution in the organization of southern industrial life. The most marked change, immediately after the close of the struggle, was necessarily in the agricultural regions, where the abolition of slavery forced the planter to resort to other methods of cultivating the land. For a time he attempted to till his huge estate with the system of hired labor that prevailed in the North. This met with small success, for certain causes worked against it. First, the prejudice to labor already inbred in the white population barred the majority of them from becoming hired laborers. Second, the fact that the southern employer of labor now discovered that he had no responsibility to care for the negro except for the actual time he was working left many of the colored race helpless. Ignorant of industrial conditions, the negro sought the towns, where the labor market was already oversupplied. Taken as a whole, there prevailed a thorough disorganization of industry.

With so complete a destruction of earlier industrial forms

went the uprooting of well-nigh all system of schools that had existed. The very fact of this revolution in industrial life laid, however, the foundation for the introduction of methods of thought and a system of schooling more in conformity with those that prevailed in the remainder of the United States.

We find that within ten years after the close of the war a provision for universal education was put into the revised constitution of every state. But, notwithstanding this provision, it must be borne in mind that the adequate equipping of a school system in the South has been a slow and painful process. The difficulties have arisen in two directions. Public opinion, still reflecting the earlier social life, has in the South been turned to no small extent against the educating of all children at the public expense.

It is by no means uncommon to find men of intelligence and influence who are out and out opposed to free public education for all the people.<sup>5</sup>

Of more immediate importance has been the financial difficulty. For a period of years—in fact, until the revival of industry that arose in the eighties—the South labored under a burden of debt, largely the result of the “carpet-bag rule,” and a chaotic industrial and political life. This condition reduced to a minimum the expenditure for education.

The period was not, however, entirely effortless. Along with the attempt to reshape industrial and political institutions went some interest and work for the building up of a school system. From 1870 to 1876, the close of the period of reconstruction, there was an increase in the total expenditure for education from \$10,385,464 to \$12,033,865 in the former slave states, but the relative increase of population was so large that the expenditure per capita of school population actually decreased from \$2.97 to \$2.84 for white children.

In 1880 a movement was set on foot to obtain federal aid for schools. This move was specially directed in the interests of the South, as several of the southern states argued that the limit of

<sup>5</sup> ROBERT FRAZER, “Virginia’s Educational Outlook,” *Report of Fifth Conference of the South*, p. 35.



taxation for school purposes had been reached in their case. The reasons given by the South for this aid were: first, the unusual impoverishment of that section of the country by the war; and, second, that education, one phase of which is the fitting of men and women for citizenship, should not be a state matter alone, but also a national. This subject was agitated in Congress from 1880 to 1890. It aroused public attention, but resulted in no definite aid.

### III. THE PRESENT RURAL SCHOOL PROBLEM.

Since the period of reconstruction and at the present time one of the main questions in southern education is the condition and the improvement of the rural schools. It must be remembered that between eight-ninths and eight-tenths, or over eighty out of every hundred of the people of the South still live in the country. A comparatively small part of the population is found in villages of one thousand inhabitants. According to the statement of Mr. G. S. Dickerman,<sup>6</sup> the population of the South is divided into 14,090,000 in rural districts and 3,029,000 in places of one thousand and over.

But while the majority are in the country districts, there is nevertheless a great sparseness in population, and the cabins are located far apart, with much intervening undeveloped land. As a result of this, the roads are poor, and the school attendance is consequently small and irregular. This difficulty, felt throughout the South, becomes greatest in that region extending down over the Appalachians.

There exist here the same poverty the same isolation, the same ignorance and narrowness of view, found in other sections of the country, only greatly intensified. Traveling for small children is difficult and often dangerous.<sup>7</sup>

Moreover, it is impossible to take the children to school until good roads have been built.

Other adverse conditions peculiar to the South confront the rural schools. The South has settled in its own way that in the education of the colored race separate schools be established.

<sup>6</sup> *Fourth Report of the Conference of the South*, p. 16.

<sup>7</sup> *Educational Conditions in the Southern Appalachians*, p. 11.

This necessitates all through the South the maintaining of two school systems side by side, and requires a division of the already inadequate school funds, thus keeping the financial question always the most prominent.

Resting upon the financial difficulty as a cause is the inefficiency of the teaching force, the first source of weakness of the rural school. It is at once evident that a profession which does not pay a living wage cannot attract to it good, or even average, material. The country schools of the South open but three, four, or five months in the year, and, paying from \$23 to \$31 per month, offer no opportunity to trained teachers. Hence it happens that the school employs "makeshifts"—perhaps "a poor relative of a director or the farmer's boys or girls." Since the ones who are engaged in teaching for four months in the year are usually farmers, houseworkers, or followers of some other industry for the remaining eight months, it is impossible to class them in the "teaching profession."

There are indications that the South is becoming keenly alive to the fact that the incompetence of the rural school-teachers is due to the inadequate salaries they receive and the shortness of the school year. Very little can be expected of teachers receiving on an average but 40 cents a day<sup>8</sup>—a sum less than is paid to unskilled labor in any industry. When these two conditions—low salaries and short terms—are corrected, a third change becomes necessary and for the first time possible—a movement toward barring from the teaching force the untrained teacher, and a consequent elevating of the plane of the profession. At present 75 per cent. of the children are taught by teachers unable to obtain a second-grade certificate. The states provide normal schools, but it is evident that without sufficient compensation the teacher cannot take a course of long and expensive training for her work. The whole situation reduces itself to one of financial support. The school can demand no better service than it will compensate. The ability of the teacher will not rise above the level of the low salary. This condition is not peculiar to the South. It is a general law in every department of education that

<sup>8</sup> *Southern Education*, March 19, 1903.

there is a direct proportion between efficiency of training and the pecuniary reward.

So urgent has become the need for trained instructors that attempts have been made to give something of immediate improvement to the rural teachers. During 1903 there was held at Knoxville a summer school for teachers offering courses in kindergarten and primary work, in pedagogy, and in the high school and college subjects. Over two thousand teachers from all parts of the South were enrolled and in actual attendance.

The North Carolina State Normal and Industrial College offers a brief course of professional training to rural teachers who cannot take a full year. This work is under the professor of pedagogy, and affords opportunity for contact with the practice and observation school which contains about four hundred children. The North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts has also organized a summer school for teachers under the direction of the president, Mr. George Winston.

Every educator recognizes the limitations of the work that can be so accomplished. It may, however, afford a valuable incentive and the opportunity for acquiring a new point of view—an entirely new educational attitude on the part of the teacher that is productive of results, even though the actual information gained must necessarily be slight.<sup>9</sup>

The second need felt in the South is for better buildings—"the necessary physical equipment of the school." The present condition is described by *Southern Education*, the publication of the Southern Education Board:

Twenty out of every one hundred of the 5,653 white school districts in North Carolina have a rude log schoolhouse or no public schoolhouse at all.<sup>10</sup>

During the past winter twenty white schools in one county were closed because the miserable schoolhouse could not be made com-

<sup>9</sup> Of much interest also in the training of southern teachers is the department of education recently instituted in connection with the University of Tennessee. The object of this school, however, is not the training of rural teachers, but rather the affording of special opportunities of scholarship and training for high-school teachers, college instructors, and superintendents.

<sup>10</sup> *Southern Education*, May 14, 1903.

fortable. Of the schools in Dougherty County, Georgia, Professor DuBois says:

I saw only one schoolhouse there that could compare in any way with the worst schoolhouse I ever saw in New England. Most of the schoolhouses were either old log huts or were churches — colored churches — used as schoolhouses.<sup>11</sup>

The following table offers a comparison of the number of schoolhouses, the average value of each, and the total value of school property in three of the representative southern states and three of the northern:

	Number of Schools	Value of Each	Total School Property
South Carolina .....	4,918	\$ 201	\$ 990,000
Tennessee .....	7,185	426	3,063,568
Mississippi .....	6,687	256	1,636,055
New York .....	11,916	7,326	87,292,414
Iowa .....	13,922	1,302	18,223,749
Massachusetts .....	4,058	12,069	48,979,719

A second table gives a comparison of the wealth and school expenditure in the same six states:<sup>12</sup>

	Valuation of Real and Personal Property	Expenditure for Public Schools (Excluding Debt Paid)	Expended for Public Schools on Each \$100 of True Valuation of Real and Personal Property
South Carolina .....	\$ 400,911,303	\$ 450,936	11.2
Tennessee .....	887,956,143	1,526,241	17.2
Mississippi .....	454,242,688	1,109,575	24.4
New York .....	8,576,701,991	17,543,880	20.5
Iowa .....	2,287,348,333	6,382,953	27.9
Massachusetts .....	2,803,645,447	8,286,062	29.6

In North Carolina 108 new buildings were erected in 1901, and 332 in 1902. In the larger and wealthier districts the problem of building is easily solved; but in the weaker rural districts there is much difficulty to be encountered, as the school fund is barely sufficient to keep the school running. The problem is reaching a solution in many parts of the South through the ten-

<sup>11</sup> *Report of Industrial Commission*, Vol. XV, p. 161.

<sup>12</sup> *Report of Department of Interior*, 1901.

dency toward the consolidation of three or four small districts into one large district. In North Carolina there was a decrease in the number of districts of 557 in the years 1902-3. The superintendent of public instruction of that state, Mr. J. Y. Joyne, has had prepared by able architects plans with specifications for one- to eight-room buildings, in accord with the best modern views on sanitation, light, and ventilation; and wherever the old building is unsatisfactory an effort is made to erect a better house in a larger district. The old demand for "a schoolhouse in front of every man's door" has changed to "a good school nine months in the year within possible reach of every child."

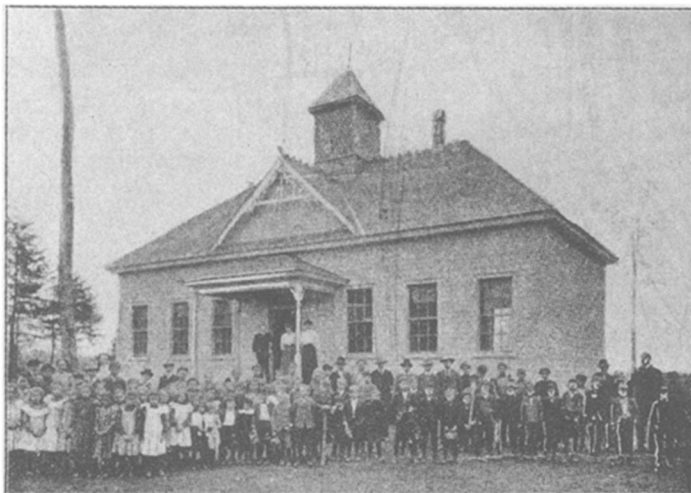
So far we have spoken only of elementary rural schools. While the cities have good high schools, there are no public secondary schools in the country districts of the South, except one at Jefferson, Miss. The question of rural high schools is receiving careful study. It may be well to remember that the unit of education in the South, like the political unit, is the county.<sup>13</sup> In Tennessee the county court of any county may establish a public high school, and may levy a tax of not over 15 cents on each \$100 of taxable property for its support. No such schools have yet been founded, however. There is, at the same time, throughout the South almost no expert supervision in the country districts. The county superintendent is also the victim of a small salary and a short term of office.

Various methods of enlarging the funds for the support of rural schools have been proposed. Federal aid has been urged. It is to be noted that the majority of the southern states still expend a very small sum out of each \$100 of taxable property for school purposes. The demand has been urged for an increased local taxation to supplement the state and county tax. The principle of local taxation prevails in the cities and towns where well-equipped schools are found, and also in those states having an adequate school system. In many states throughout the country over 75 per cent. of the school funds are raised in this manner. It would appear that the solution of the financial difficulty of the southern rural schools is to be found in this direction.

<sup>13</sup> *Educational Conditions in Tennessee*, p. 7.



**PUBLIC SCHOOLHOUSE IN MANGUM TOWNSHIP, DURHAM COUNTY, BEFORE  
CONSOLIDATION OF DISTRICTS.**



**NEW PUBLIC SCHOOLHOUSE IN SAME TOWNSHIP AFTER CONSOLIDATION  
OF THREE SMALL DISTRICTS.**

A movement comparable to the westward migration of the young and energetic has gone on in the South. The more progressive element of the country has been drawn off by the towns, and this has tended to weaken the rural districts and leave them in a stagnant condition, lessening the demand by the people themselves for good schools. The South speaks for itself concerning its rural schools: "All thinking southerners know that the public schools are a disgrace."<sup>14</sup> "The common school should be the very best school that we have, so far as it goes, instead of being the poorest, as it is today in most of the southern states."<sup>15</sup>

But the South is rapidly being aroused to the fact that without a foundation in well-equipped public schools no system of education can accomplish lasting results for any people; and that such a system can only be maintained through ample financial support.

#### IV. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

It is evident to every observer that since 1880 the South has passed through an industrial transformation. Up to that date it exported large quantities of raw material to be worked up by the mills and factories of the North or of England. Of its largest crop, cotton, the South kept and manufactured in its own territory only about 234,000 bales—a slight fraction of what it produced. The iron ore that it mined was sent to be converted into machines and implements in the blast-furnaces of the North. Its coal and timber were still to a large extent unutilized natural resources.

For the production of these raw materials unskilled labor could be used to considerable advantage. The industrial and commercial change that has taken place within the last twenty years has centered largely around cotton. The southern states trebled the capacity of their cotton-mills in the last decade, but still use only 30 per cent. of the cotton crop. A large part of these mills are located near the cotton fields, mainly from Virginia to Alabama, along the "fall line." That is to say, since water power is used extensively, they are located at points where the

<sup>14</sup> DR. CHARLES DABNEY, *Proceedings of the Fourth Conference for Education*, p. 42.

<sup>15</sup> J. W. ABERCROMBIE, *State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Alabama*.

rivers crossing from the hard rocks of the Appalachian belt to the softer rocks of the coast plain have formed falls and rapids.

Certain advantages have been pointed out as belonging to the southern states in the manufacture of cotton. Not only have they the advantage of raw cotton at their doors, but they have also cheap fuel and cheap labor.

Some conception of the growth in the cotton industry can be gained from the fact that, while in 1880 there were 180 factories, in 1900 there 663. In 1902, 130,000 looms and 6,250,000 spindles were running. It is to be noted that, like some of the New England mills, so nearly all the southern mills are in the hands of New York commission houses, and that a general movement exists toward a combination or a cotton trust.<sup>16</sup>

In entering the cotton industry the South has thus far confined itself almost exclusively to the making of the coarser, heavier qualities of cotton goods—drills, shirtings, and sheetings. For the manufacture of the finer grades of cotton a certain amount of skilled labor is necessary. Hence has grown up a demand for one phase of industrial training. The textile school has risen to meet this want.

Second as a factor in southern industrial life is the awakening of the iron industry. This centers chiefly around Birmingham, Ala. In this district, within a small radius, are found, not alone the iron ore, but also the coke-making coal and limestone essential for the process of iron-smelting. This reduces greatly the cost of iron-making. As the industry has developed, the demand for skilled iron-workers has arisen, and schools furnishing courses in mining and engineering have appeared.

Finally, the South is becoming conscious of the need of better and more scientific methods in farming, and the agricultural college has grown up as a result.

One of the most striking facts, then, in southern education at the present time is the rapid increase of technical and industrial schools to meet the demand of the recent economic development. There are in the South twenty-eight agricultural and mechanical colleges, three state schools of technology or mining, six local

<sup>16</sup> T. M. YOUNG, *The American Cotton Industry*, p. 119.



technical schools, and sixteen colleges or universities that have technical departments.<sup>17</sup>

An examination of a few of these institutions will give some conception of the character of their equipment, their method of work, and their educational standpoint.

The North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, located at Raleigh, owning six hundred acres of land and well-equipped work shops, laboratories, and drawing-rooms, is comprehensive in its course of work. It offers instruction in agriculture, embracing horticulture and agricultural chemistry. It is well recognized in the South that little more can be done for agriculture until a generation is educated that can read the bulletins and apply the methods of science. The work in engineering includes civil, mechanical, mining, and electrical courses.

The most significant new development is the opening of courses in textile industry. This work has developed through the demand of the cotton-mills for designers, mill architects, overseers of weaving, and managers. Instruction, both theoretical and practical, is given in cotton-manufacturing. The theories of spinning, weaving, designing, and dyeing are taught. All the work is carried on in the textile building constructed after the plan of a model cotton-mill and fitted with the most modern cotton-mill machinery. As to the character of further instruction, since it is recognized that the industries for their development rest primarily upon science, there is an effort made to strengthen the work in all departments of science; mathematics, physics, botany, and chemistry receiving special attention. The course in history lays particular emphasis upon the world's great industries, their origin, development, and extent being traced. In addition, the circumstances that led to the invention of various implements and machines, and the place these have had in the evolution of industrial life, are made subjects of investigation.

The Hampton Institute, of Virginia, is unparalleled in at least one particular. It has tried successfully the experiment of educating together along industrial lines the negro and the Indian. They are instructed together in the same class-rooms and

<sup>17</sup> *Report of Industrial Commission*, Vol. XV.

shops, and all the indications are that they work well together. The elements characteristic of the two races serve to balance one the other, the diversities in many instances proving a help to their mutual development. The Indian, reserved, self-controlled, slow in speech, and defiant, is confronted with the vivacious, buoyant, and demonstrative negro.<sup>18</sup> While every attempt to educate the Indian with white youth has proved a failure, this school is a success. The methods used in dealing with the students are best described by the principal of the institution :

When they come into the school, we do not put them into books, we take them to our laboratory. For instance, every boy and girl is put into the chemical laboratory and the physical laboratory, where they get the first principles of these things so that they shall know something about air and water and soil. Then they begin to write about these things, and they begin to talk about them, and then gradually we introduce them to books; but we put the doing of the thing first all the way through.<sup>19</sup>

The laboratory and field-observation method prevails in all departments, and it is from graduates of this school that the majority of the southern colored schools are furnished with teachers.

Clemson College, South Carolina, has a place peculiarly its own among southern industrial schools. It must be remembered that southern slavery had bred in the white youth, both of the slave-owning and "poor white" class, a contempt for labor. Clemson College has done much to destroy this mental attitude.

This is one of the southern schools that have attempted to maintain other than an entirely commercial standpoint in its industrial training. Its object is not to make mechanics or machinists primarily, but<sup>20</sup> to "educate their minds, broaden their

<sup>18</sup> *Southern Workman*, July, 1903.

<sup>19</sup> H. B. FRISSEL, *Industrial Report*, Vol. XV, p. 80.

<sup>20</sup> "This is not what is sometimes termed a trade school, giving only elementary academic studies and a preponderance of shop practice and other manual labor. In all the courses of study offered here the special features are superstructures built upon a solid foundation of good English education. With the exception of irregularities, allowed mature young men, all the courses are for four years. We offer agriculture, civil engineering, electrical engineering, and textile engineering. This present year courses have been put on in biology and metallurgy. Our main purpose in all these courses is to give a scientific training

intellects, and teach them all the fundamental principles, together with the practice in all the different departments of work. When they get through, they have such an experience and knowledge of these matters that any man with the knowledge that we furnish him can make a man of himself in any department of life.”<sup>21</sup>

While nominally an agricultural school, this college has added well-equipped departments in mechanics and textiles. The textile course has developed since 1898 and prepares men for all phases of the textile industry. While as yet the South weaves only coarse goods, this school anticipates the time when finer qualities will be produced, and instructs in the use of the Jacquard and Leno looms.

The demand for greater perfection in dyeing, as well as a recognition of the excellent work done by the Germans in industrial chemistry, has no doubt been an incentive for this college in developing that department of science. The two years of general chemistry lay a foundation for industrial chemistry. During the past year a number of farmers' institutes were held under the direction of this institution, with the aim of bringing practical information and the results of scientific investigation within the reach of the farmer.

Numerous other schools might be instanced, but these may be viewed as in a way representative of the best elements found in southern industrial education. Of the extent of opportunity afforded for manual and industrial training the following will give some conception: Cities in which manual training was given in the public schools in 1901: Kentucky—Frankfort, Louisville; North Carolina—Asheville, Durham; Maryland—Annapolis, Baltimore. Manual and industrial schools in the South in 1901:<sup>22</sup> Virginia, 1; North Carolina, 5; South Carolina, 1; Georgia, 1;

to the student, so that he can reason for himself, so that he will know how to work out comprehensive problems, in his line, that he may come in contact with. We attempt to direct his mind in its development so that when he gets away from here he can do his own reasoning and thinking as well as handle tools and instruments, if necessary.”—MR. J. H. M. BEATY, director of textile department.

<sup>21</sup> MR. RICHARD SIMPSON, president of the board of trustees of Clemson College.

<sup>22</sup> *Report of Department of Interior*, 1901.

Kentucky, 2; Tennessee, 1; Alabama, 2; Louisiana, 2; Texas, 1; Maryland, 7.

It is essential to examine the attitude of the southern public toward the problem of industrial training. To state that its importance is recognized is to describe the condition mildly. It is the demand of the hour. Unique conditions have met in the South. Passing suddenly from the eighteenth-century social organization to modern industrial life, the problem arose of fitting her people to utilize her raw products; for it is recognized that it is a higher grade of civilization that transforms and adds new utilities than that which produces the raw material.

The South had been distinctively a cotton-producing section. It must be pointed out that the growth of the cotton-manufacturing industry in the South has not rested primarily on proximity to the cotton fields. Germany, although importing practically all her raw material, is able to compete in the world-market. The commercial success of Germany depends largely on her skilled cheap labor, that has as a corollary an extremely low standard of life for the German workman. While the South has cheap labor — and this was the main reason for the location of mills in the South — she is deficient in skilled labor. Hence, to enable her to compete successfully and produce goods of a higher grade, she makes a demand for industrial training to provide skilled workmen.

The attitude of the southern public may be thus summed up, that it desires to give men industrial training that they may become more profitable economic producers, and thus increase the wealth of that section of the country. This is the motive force behind the movement for industrial education. It has frequently been proved that the educated workman is the most valuable producer. That education increases the productivity of a people in direct proportion to its distribution seems to be shown by the following proportions: "Education is as 14 in Massachusetts to 8.8 in the United States to 6 in Tennessee. Production is as 13 in Massachusetts to 8.5 in the United States to 5.8 in Tennessee."<sup>23</sup>

It is claimed that the South has reached the limit of her productive power without further industrial education and the

<sup>23</sup> *Report of Industrial Commission*, Vol. XV, p. 193.

demand has arisen that such training be provided by the public schools and that "special industrial schools adapted to the prevailing industry of each district should be established in all industrial centers."<sup>24</sup>

It is the idea of man in relation to social wealth—that is to say, the standpoint of the economist—that is paramount in the public mind.

Production, the gaining of control over environment, is of great import in the social life; yet a question of equal importance arises as to the manner in which man functions as a producer. If an industrial education is to produce mechanical workmen able to comprehend only the immediate processes with which they are concerned, the individual producer is narrowed in his conceptions and barred from that element of intelligent appreciation that comes from work executed with a full realization of its social value and meaning. The division line is between the man taught a "trade," capable of following it automatically, and the industrially educated individual who has a clear insight into the whole industrial process, its origin and development, and who with this knowledge is able to secure a degree of pleasure in the execution of his work.

From the educational standpoint it is clear that in fitting men to assume a place in society, to share in its industrial life, the individual to be educated must be taken into consideration, the development of his powers and inclinations. This psychological phase cannot be either neglected or made subordinate.

Aside from the individual, there is a distinct social effect. If a class of artisans for economic purposes only is produced, there must result eventually a form of social stagnation, since the creative activity will make no advance under a mechanical régime. The present industrial period in its reaction from the older classical education shows a tendency to move to the other extreme, and give to men only a bare training of the hand that possesses no meaning to them other than the increased power it gives to create goods.

Many southern educators have recognized the result of this

<sup>24</sup> *Report of Commissioner of Education, 1901, Vol. II, p. 512.*

attitude toward manual training. The demand is made on the part of some that there should be at least a thorough secondary training before there is any specializing along industrial lines.

I agree fully with those who stand for the importance of technical education in the South, whether it be along agricultural, mechanical, commercial, scientific, or pedagogical lines. But I submit that in order to get the practical benefit of the scientific instruction offered by the colleges there must be a certain mental preparedness which cannot be gained short of a high-school course.<sup>25</sup>

Further, the position is held by others that, while perfection of production is desirable, this should be accompanied by greater attention to the problem of proper distribution, if education is to develop all the members in a democratic society and thus make for social progress.

There remains one other phase of the industrial development—the relation of the cotton-mill to the school problem. Wherever the factory system, with its various processes, many of them adapted to slight strength and requiring little more than a guiding power, has grown up, there has arisen the question of the labor of little children. The South faces this problem, and speaks for itself as to its conditions through one of its representative men, Mr. J. Y. Joyner:<sup>26</sup>

Reports from twenty-three counties in which cotton-mills are located show, in the cotton-mill districts, a total white school population of 33,280, a total enrolment of 14,449 white children in the schools of these districts, and a total average daily attendance of 9,014. Only about two-fifths of these children, then, ever attend school, and only about one-fourth of the children of the factory districts in the schools, three-fourths of them out of school. This is the average. In many districts the attendance was much lower than this.

The time for action has arrived. In the face of these facts, legislation upon this question should be delayed no longer. No human-hearted man can longer turn a deaf ear to the cry of the factory children. The strong arm of law must intervene. I earnestly recommend, therefore, the enactment of a law that shall accomplish the following purposes:

1. That no child under twelve years of age shall be employed or allowed to work in any cotton-mill or factory of any sort.

<sup>25</sup> P. H. SAUNDERS, University of Mississippi, in *School Review*, February, 1903.

<sup>26</sup> Superintendent of public instruction, North Carolina.

2. That no child under fourteen years of age who cannot read and write shall be employed or allowed to work in any cotton-mill or factory of any sort.

3. That no child under fourteen years of age shall be employed or allowed to work at night in any cotton-mill or factory of any sort.

To make fully effective such a law, some legislation looking to compelling these children to attend the schools while in session ought to be enacted.

Far be it from me to recommend aught that would needlessly retard the splendid industrial development of this state, but industrial development bought with the blood of children is too dear. Dwarfed minds, shriveled bodies, and impoverished souls are too great a price to pay for anything on earth."

Professor P. P. Claxton, chief of the Bureau of Investigation and Information of the Southern Education Board, makes this statement:

I know a mill town with a school population of more than nine hundred and an average daily attendance of less than one hundred and fifty at its eight months of public school. There is no other school in the town. In the middle of this town I have seen boys and girls not yet nine years old working at midnight.

In reference to Columbus, Ga., Carleton B. Gibson, superintendent of schools, says:

In this town of Columbus, which is a manufacturing town, we have a factory population of several thousand. Of these people who work in the mills there are perhaps one thousand children whom we have not yet been able to bring into our public schools in the absence of any compulsory-education law.

The following table shows the age at which the labor of children is prohibited in factories and the age for compulsory school attendance in ten of the southern states, wherever such laws exist:

	Age at which Labor in Factories is Prohibited	Age of Compulsory School Attendance
Virginia.....	No law	No law
West Virginia.....	12 years	8-14 years
Tennessee.....	14 years	No law
South Carolina.....	No law	No law
Georgia.....	No law	No law
Alabama.....	No law	No law
Florida.....	No law	No law
Louisiana.....	14, girls, 12, boys	No law
Kentucky.....	No legislation on the subject	7-14 years
North Carolina.....	No legislation on the subject	No law

<sup>21</sup> *Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, North Carolina, 1901.*

In discussing the question of child labor in the South it must be remembered that it is largely northern capital that is behind the southern cotton-manufacturing industry, and that is increasing at the expense of child labor. Social preservation alone would demand that the South protect its children from conditions that must bring physical and mental deterioration and premature death.

#### V. NEGRO EDUCATION.

In approaching the subject of negro education, the student of sociology finds himself in a much-debated field. Many assertions have been made, but slight proof has been furnished, in these discussions of the negro problem. The topic has been one difficult to divest of personality and to treat in a scientific manner. It is encouraging to note that the subject is passing into a new phase; that careful and able studies of the negro race are being carried on under the direction of the Department of Labor. A demand has arisen for accurate data, that can be obtained only through these sociological and ethnological investigations, before theorizing is carried any farther. Atlanta University forms also a center of such investigations. These are under the direction of Professor W. E. B. DuBois, "a careful, accurate student of the race problem, who is doing more than any other worker in the field to supplant by scientific method guesswork and vagaries—he approaches the subject with the best approved methods of sociological inquiry."<sup>28</sup>

The extent of the education of the negro race during the period of slavery is difficult to state. How far they acquired a knowledge of reading and writing will never admit of accurate estimation. Some slaveholders taught their slaves to a slight degree, but it seems fair to conclude that the number doing so was very small. Where it was done it was in direct opposition to the laws of the southern states.

While there had existed a few schools for negroes before 1830, practically all these were closed after that date, owing to the fact that slavery was becoming a decidedly important factor in the industrial world. It was perceived that the educating of

<sup>28</sup> *Report of Department of Interior*, 1901, Vol. I, p. 772.



the negro would threaten the permanency of the institution of slavery.

In 1832 the law in Alabama provided that

Any person or persons who shall attempt to teach any free person of color or slave to spell, read, or write shall, upon conviction thereof by indictment, be fined in a sum not less than \$250 and not more than \$500.

The law of 1829 in Georgia provided for a punishment of fine, whipping, or imprisonment for teaching a negro to read or write. The states of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Missouri, and Virginia enacted laws forbidding the teaching of negroes. Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee excluded them from the schools.

While the northern states enacted no laws forbidding the teaching of negroes, there was much hostility to any such movement, and mob violence arose against colored schools in Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio.

In 1865 the Freedman's Bureau took form. This bureau was the most active agent in founding the common-school system of the South.

In providing education for the colored children, it has become the settled policy of the South that equal but separate schools be furnished for the two races. The law of the state of Florida is representative of the laws of the other southern states: "White and colored children shall not be taught in the same school, but impartial provision shall be made for both."<sup>29</sup>

How far these equal facilities are provided for the two races is shown by the following statistics:

SCHOOL EXPENDITURE OF SIXTEEN FORMER SLAVE STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

YEAR	EXPENDITURE FOR EACH RACE		SCHOOL POPULATION FOR EACH RACE		EXPENDITURE PER CAPITA OF SCHOOL POPULATION	
	White	Colored	White	Colored	White	Colored
1895-96. . . . .	\$24,432,222	\$5,011,362	5,679,755	2,761,205	4.30	1.81
1897-98. . . . .	24,765,544	6,451,937	5,828,980	2,844,570	4.25	2.27

<sup>29</sup> *School Laws*, 1897, p. 12.

This table shows that the expenditure for the negro child is about one-half of that for the white child. In North Carolina they are more nearly even—\$1.17 for white, \$1.03 for colored. In Florida the proportion is \$5.92 for the white and \$2.27 for the colored.<sup>30</sup> It is argued that the white school represents a higher grade of scholastic attainment than the colored school. This, however, does not change the point at issue.

The assertion is generally accepted as true that the education of the negro has been a heavy burden on the white taxpayers. I quote in full from the *Report of the Department of the Interior*<sup>31</sup> in relation to the state of Georgia:

It was estimated that the negroes of Georgia paid during 1899 \$26,347.43 in direct tax and \$89,003 in polls, making a total of \$115,530.43 paid directly by the race for educational purposes. The nature of the indirect taxation of Georgia is such that the negro is without any shadow of question entitled to his due proportion.

Western & Atlantic Railroad	-	-	-	-	-	\$210,000
Liquor tax	-	-	-	-	-	142,000
Convict lease	-	-	-	-	-	24,255
Dividend from stocks	-	-	-	-	-	2,046
Shaw tax	-	-	-	-	-	4,692
Oil tax	-	-	-	-	-	12,503

The negro's pro rata share of the school fund raised by indirect taxation was \$176,898.24, making a total of \$292,248.67. The expenditure for negro schools, including proportional cost of superintendence, was \$288,128. This would seem to show that the whites of Georgia do not contribute one cent to negro education.

On the same basis of calculation, though with confessed lack of definite data, the conference shows a like condition of things for the entire South. The negro is shown to have contributed in thirty years \$104,539.592 toward public education. This sum, of course, includes his pro rata of general funds, such as land funds and indirect taxation. The total cost of negro education for the period was \$101,860,601.

Maryland, Kentucky, and Delaware give only that portion of the local school tax paid by colored property-holders to colored schools. This does not apply to the state tax, since that is equally apportioned.

<sup>30</sup> *Report of Department of Interior*, 1901, Vol. I.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 755.

A question of importance arises as to the economic condition of the southern negro. An analysis of the number of the colored race owning land shows that one-sixth of the negroes are taxpayers on their own property. This includes mortgaged farms, as the fact of a mortgage does not change the statistics of taxation. This brings out the significant fact that one-fourth of a million colored men have changed within forty years from chattel slaves to property-holders.<sup>32</sup> Further, there are about 1,059,991 colored renters. These in an indirect way also pay taxes, since rent always includes taxes. The negro without doubt is entitled to his equal share in all educational benefits. It is plain that the South still rests largely on negro labor. Every state shows a higher percentage of negroes than of whites engaged in the occupations. Of negroes, 414 out of every 1,000 are employed; of whites, 309 out of every 1,000.

It is in the South that the problem of negro education is to be worked out. Over 92 per cent. of the nine million negroes still remain in the South, segregating gradually into the "black belt" in the county and the "colored wards" in the cities. In the cities the question of negro education is not so difficult. Here the opportunities are more clearly equal. It is in the rural districts that the same difficulties that face the white children surround the colored child, only greatly intensified.<sup>33</sup>

The most-discussed phase of negro education at present is as to the relative value of manual training and higher education. This has opened up the whole subject of the intellectual capacity of the negro—a subject far too wide for discussion here. Notwithstanding numerous assertions denying anything but a low degree of mentality to the negro, colored youths have succeeded in mastering the work required in the higher institutions of learning.

There are hundreds and thousands of black men in this country who in capacity are to be ranked with the superior persons of the dominant race, and

<sup>32</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 760.

<sup>33</sup> *The Negro Common School*, No. 6 of the "Atlanta University Publications," gives a thorough study of the rural schools in each state of the South. This is edited by W. E. B. DuBois.

it is hard to say that in any evident feature of mind they characteristically differ from their white fellow-citizens.<sup>34</sup>

It is argued by many southern educators that industrial education—the training to become carpenters, masons, blacksmiths—should for the present make up the sum total of a negro's education.<sup>35</sup>

While in no way arguing against educative industrial training, the fact remains that “the negro is a man entitled to all the privileges of manhood.” Why then limit him to developing the mechanical side alone? “The claim for the higher education of colored youth is not based upon relative capacity, but upon their ability to profit by it.”

That they are able to profit by such education seems proved by the table compiled by Dr. F. G. Merrill<sup>36</sup> in answer to the statement of Charles Dudley Warner that higher education is doing the negro more harm than good, and increasing his lawlessness and idleness.

STATISTICS OF THE FOUR HUNDRED GRADUATES OF FISK UNIVERSITY.

College professors	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
Principals of high and normal schools	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12
Principals of grammar schools	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	34
Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	165
Doctors	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17
Ministers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19
United States government employees	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
Lawyers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
Commercial pursuits	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
Students in professional schools	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
Wives at home	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	44
Living at home	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
Unclassified	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
Business and homes not registered by university	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	32

It would be difficult to find any northern university for the training of white youths that presents a more satisfactory record than this.

<sup>34</sup> PROFESSOR N. S. SHAILER of Harvard University.

<sup>35</sup> *Report of Industrial Commission*, Vol. XV, p. 129.

<sup>36</sup> DR. F. C. MERRILL, dean of Fisk University.

Within the colored race itself these two forces—the one standing for industrial training exclusively; the other, while recognizing the value of manual education, still contending that the negro youth should have an equal opportunity for higher education—are represented respectively by Mr. B. T. Washington and Professor W. E. B. DuBois.

The position of the best white element of the South seems to be: “The negro is a man to be educated for work, independence, and citizenship like other men.”<sup>37</sup>

<sup>37</sup> DR. CHARLES DABNEY, president of the University of Tennessee.

#### VI. SOUTHERN EDUCATION BOARD.

No treatment of southern education would be complete without a reference to the scope and work of the Southern Education Board. This was organized in 1901. It is in a sense the executive authority of the popular gathering known as the Conference for Education in the South.

The purpose of this board is to “stimulate sentiment in favor of more liberal provision for universal education in the public schools, to reach the public mind and quicken the public conscience.” Its method is to go before the people with its own publications, and to reach them through the public press and by public speech. It is in favor of negro education, and stands for the best and amplest training for both races. Its policy is co-operation with existing educational agencies, not interference. It is free from all alliances, either political or ecclesiastical. The chief interest of the board is in the development of the public schools, especially of rural communities. In fact, it is a central agency to conduct a campaign for free education in the South.

MAY WOOD SIMONS.

MELROSE PARK, ILL.